

An Experimental Investigation of Wind Effects and Dynamic Behavior of an Octagonal Cylinder

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Abstract

In this research work, an experimental investigation of surface static pressure distributions on octagonal cylinder was conducted. The test was conducted in an open circuit wind tunnel at a Reynolds number of 4.13×10^4 based on the face width of the cylinder across the flow direction in a uniform flow velocity of 13.2 m/s. At first experiment the test was carried out on a single cylinder at various angles of attack from 0° to 50° at a step of 10° . The surface static pressures at the different locations of the cylinder were measured with the help of inclined multi-manometers. It was found that one of the main factors influencing the dynamic behavior of tall building is the dynamic characteristics of the wind such as turbulence and wake excitation. The lift and drag coefficients were calculated from the measured data of surface static pressure. It was observed that at various angles of attack, the values of the lift coefficients were insignificant compared to those for a sharp-edged square cylinder. The main objective of the present study is to further the understanding of wind effects on tall building and the behavior of high-rise structures under wind conditions by means of wind tunnel testing. The results will enable the engineers and architects to design buildings of dynamically more sound and safe, particularly in coastal area.

Keywords

Wind Load; Octagonal Cylinder; Static Pressure Distribution; Wind Tunnel

Introduction

The subjects of wind load on buildings and structures are not a new one. In the 17th century, Galileo and Newton have considered the effect of wind loading on buildings, but during that period, it did not gain popularity. The effect of wind loading on buildings and structures has been considered for design purposes since late in the 19th century; but starting from that time up to about 1950, the studies in this field have not been considered seriously. Building and

their components are to be designed to withstand the code specified wind loads. Calculating wind loads is important in the design of wind force resisting system, including structural members, components, and cladding against shear, sliding, overturning and uplift actions.

In recent years, much emphasis has been given on "The study of wind effect on buildings and structures" in the different corners of the world. Even researchers in Bangladesh have taken much interest in this field. Till now, little attention has been paid to the flow over the bluff bodies like square cylinders, rectangular cylinders, hexagonal cylinders etc. and some information is available concerning the flow over them in staggered condition, although this is a problem of considerable practical significance. With the progressing world, Engineering problems regarding wind loads around a group of skyscrapers, chimneys, towers and the flow induced vibration of tubes in heat exchangers, bridges, oil rigs or marine structures need detailed investigation of flow patterns and aerodynamic characteristics. Arising from the increasing practical importance of bluff body aerodynamics, over the past few decades' sufficient effort has been given in research works concerning laboratory simulations, full-scale measurements and more recently numerical calculations and theoretical predictions for flows over bodies of wide variety of shapes. A number of failures of bridges, transmission towers, buildings and housings over the last one hundred years prompted researchers to do research work in this field.

It is the great challenge of the engineers and architects to reduce the wind load on the tall buildings. Now a day due to huge population pressure, emphasis on design and construction of the tall buildings is being given in many places. Especially the design of the

group of tall buildings is the most important consideration to take care of the housing problem of the huge population. As the building becomes tall it is necessary to take into consideration the effect of wind on its design. Keeping this in mind the study on the group of octagonal cylinders has been conducted, which will be applicable to obtain the wind load on the group of tall buildings.

The study of wind effect was first limited to loading on buildings and structures only, possibly because of its most dramatic effects are seen in their collapses. In mid-sixties, researchers started the study of less dramatic, but equally important environmental aspects of flow of wind around buildings. These include the effects on pedestrians, weathering, rain penetration, ventilation, heat loss, wind noise and air pollution etc. The pioneer researcher in this field is Lawson, T.V. (1975) of the University of Bristol. A number of works of the environmental aspects of wind was being studied at the Building Research Establishment at Garson and the University of Bristol, UK.

It is true that researchers from all over the world have contributed greatly to the knowledge of flow over bluff bodies as published by Mchuri, F. G. (1969) but the major part of the reported works are of fundamental nature involving the flow over single body of different profiles. Most of the researchers have conducted works either on single cylinder with circular, square, hexagonal or rectangular sections etc. or in a group with them for various flow parameters. However, the flow over octagonal cylinders has not been studied extensively especially in-groups to date, although this is a problem of practical significance. It is believed that the study on the cylinder with octagonal section will contribute to find the wind load on the single and group of octagonal buildings and the results will be useful to the relevant engineers and architects.

Experimental Set-up

Wind Tunnel

The test was conducted at the exit end of an open circuit subsonic wind tunnel. In Figure 1 the schematic diagram of the wind tunnel is presented showing the position of the cylinders at the exit end of the wind tunnel. One cylinder was located at the upstream side called front cylinder and the other one was located at the downstream side called rear cylinder. The wind tunnel was 6 m long with a test section of 460 mm \times 460 mm cross section. The cylinders were fixed to the

side walls of the extended portion at the exit end.

In the side wall the cylinder was fastened rigidly at one end and through the other end of the cylinder the plastic tubes from the tapping were taken out and were connected with the inclined manometer, which contained water as the manometer liquid. The cylinder was leveled in such a way that the flow direction was parallel to its top and bottom sides and perpendicular to the front side. The axis of the cylinder was at the same level to that of the wind tunnel. To generate the wind velocity, two axial flow fans are used. Each of the fans is connected with the motor of 2.25 kilowatt and 2900 rpm. The induced flow through the wind tunnel is produced by two-stage rotating axial flow fan of capacity 18.16 m³/s at the head of 152.4 mm of water and 1475 rpm.

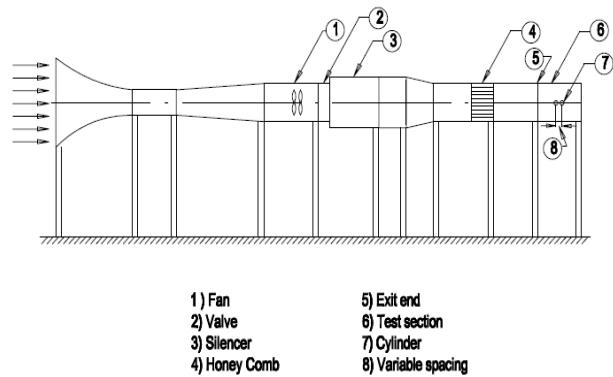


FIG. 1 SCHEMATIC DIAGRAM OF WIND TUNNEL

The measured velocity distribution was almost uniform across the tunnel test section in the upstream side of the test models. The pattern of the flow velocity is shown in Figure 2 in the non-dimensional form.

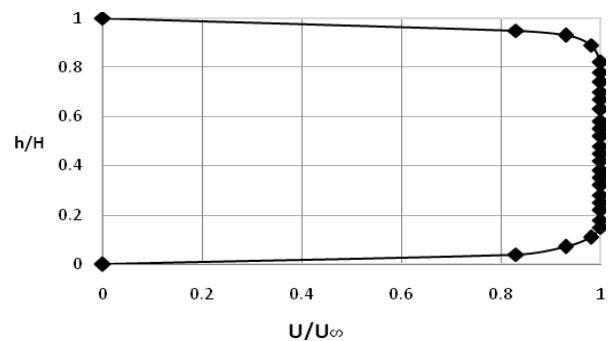


FIG. 2 VELOCITY DISTRIBUTION AT UPSTREAM SIDE OF MODEL CYLINDER

Constructional Details of Cylinders

The tapping positions on the cross-section of the cylinder are shown in Figure 3. The width of the octagonal cylinder was 50mm as shown in this figure. Each face of the cylinder contained five tappings.

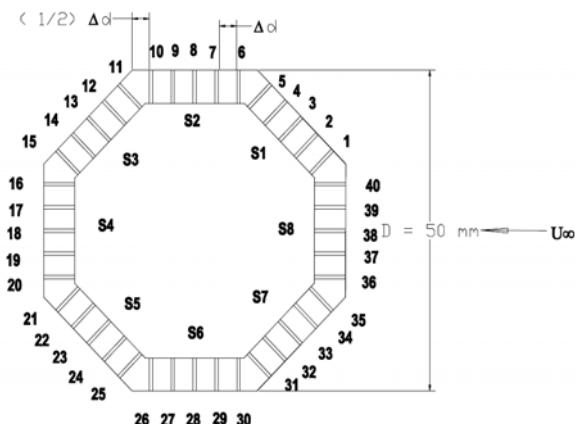


FIG. 3 TAPPING POSITIONS SHOWN ON CROSS-SECTION OF CYLINDER

In Figure 4 the tapping positions on the longitudinal section of the cylinder is shown. There were five tappings on each face of the cylinder. The distance between the consecutive tapping points was equal (Δd) as shown in the figure. However, the location of the corner tapping was at a distance of $\frac{1}{2}\Delta d$. Each taping was identified by a numerical number from 1 to 40 as can be seen from the figure. It can be seen from the longitudinal section that the tappings were not made along the cross-section of the cylinder.

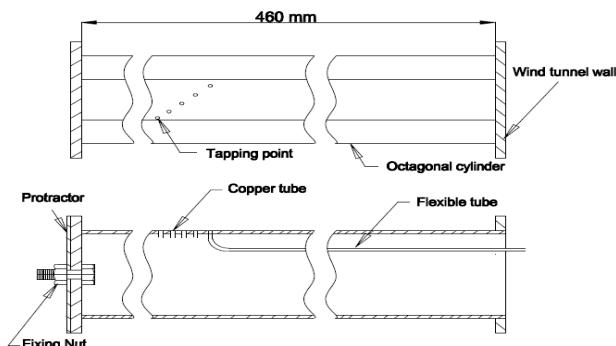


FIG. 4 TAPPING POSITIONS SHOWN ON LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF CYLINDER

They were located within some span of the cylinder as shown in Figure 4. On one side of the cylinder a steel plate was attached through which there was a bolt for fixing the cylinder with the side wall of the extended tunnel as shown in Figure 4. The other side of the cylinder was hollow through which the plastic tubes were allowed to pass. The plastic tubes were connected with the copper capillary tubes at one side and at the other side with the inclined multi-manometer. The manometer liquid was water. The tappings were made of copper tubes of 1.71 mm outside diameter. Each tapping was of 10mm length approximately. From the end of the copper tube flexible plastic tube of 1.70 mm inner diameter was press fitted.

Single Cylinder

The upstream velocity was assumed to be uniform and the flow occurred across the cylinder. In Figure 5 the position of the single cylinder at zero angle of attack is shown in the wind tunnel test section.



FIG. 5 TUNNEL TEST SECTION SHOWING POSITION OF SINGLE CYLINDER

The surface static pressure distributions on eight faces of the cylinder were measured in this position. Then the cylinder was rotated at an angle of 10° and the static pressure distributions on each face of the cylinder were measured again. The same test procedure was repeated to measure the surface static pressure distributions of the cylinders with angles of attack of $0^\circ, 10^\circ, 20^\circ, 30^\circ, 40^\circ$ and 50° .

Mathematical Model

The pressure coefficient is defined as

$$C_P = \frac{\Delta P}{\frac{1}{2} \rho u_\infty^2} \quad (1)$$

Drag and lift coefficients are defined as follows

$$C_D = \frac{F_D}{\frac{1}{2} \rho u_\infty^2} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{and } C_L = \frac{F_L}{\frac{1}{2} \rho u_\infty^2} \quad (3)$$

The detailed calculation of C_P can be found in Mandal, A. C.

Results and Discussion

Single Cylinder

The distributions of the pressure coefficients drag and lift coefficients have been taken into consideration for discussion for a single octagonal cylinder at different angles of attack. Pressure coefficients have been calculated from the measured values of the surface static pressures. All the coefficients are determined for the uniform cross flow on the cylinder at Reynolds of

4.13×10^4 based on the width of the cylinder across the flow direction at zero angle of attack. Before going to discuss the results of the experimental investigation, it will be relevant here to present the typical flow pattern over a single square cylinder at zero, small and moderate angles of attack as shown in Figure 6.

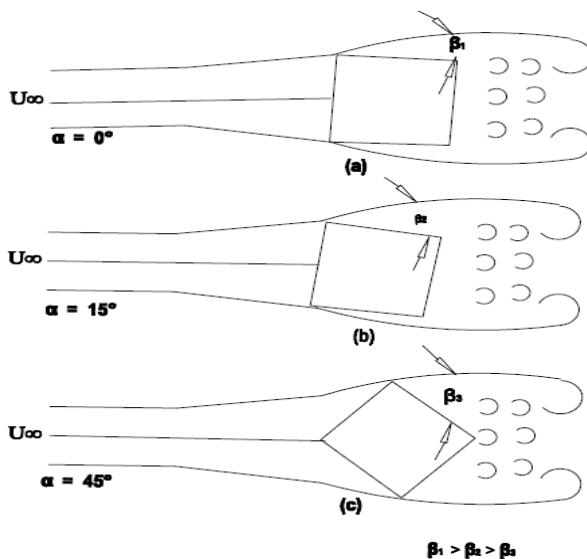


FIG. 6 TYPICAL VORTEX PATTERN IN THE DOWNSTREAM OF SQUARE CYLINDER

Although the octagonal cylinder will give a bit different flow pattern, formation of the vortex pair will be similar. Therefore, the typical flow over the single square cylinder has been discussed. As the angle of attack increases, the path of the shear layers is altered from their point of origin at the front corners of the square cylinder to the vortex formation region as shown in Figure 6. In the absence of turbulence in the incident flow, the shear layers which originate at the front corners of the square cylinder curve outward and form the familiar vortex street in the wake close behind the body. The pressure developed on the back surface depends on the distance of the vortices. The longer is the distance of the vortices from the body, higher is the back pressure and vice versa. For the above reasons, pressures increase at the rear surface of the model cylinder around the angle of attack of 15° , while in the higher range of angle of attack, decrease.

Distribution of Pressure Coefficients

The cross-section of the single octagonal model cylinder with 40 numbers of tappings, eight numbers on each surface of the cylinder at an angle of attack has been shown in Figure 7.

The eight surfaces have been identified with $S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4, S_5, S_6, S_7$ and S_8 . Pressure coefficient for each tapping

point has been determined from the measured surface static pressure. In Figure 8, the distributions of static pressure coefficients for angles of attack of 0° to 50° with a step of 10° have been presented respectively. While in Figure 8, the distributions of pressure coefficients for all angles of attack have been shown for relative comparison. From Figure 8 one can observe that the distribution of the pressure coefficients is symmetric at zero angle of attack.

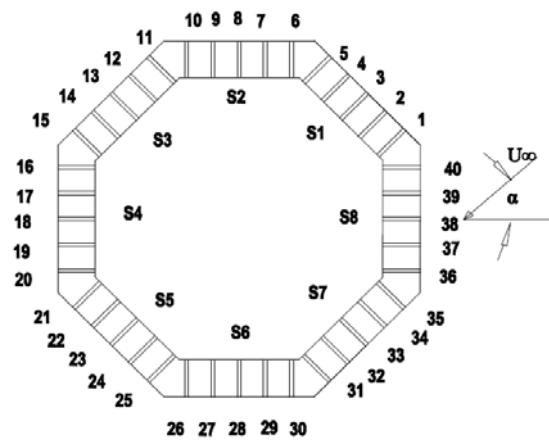


FIG. 7 FLOW OVER SINGLE CYLINDER AT AN ANGLE OF ATTACK

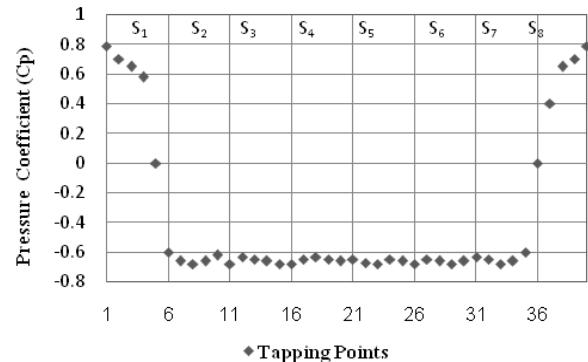
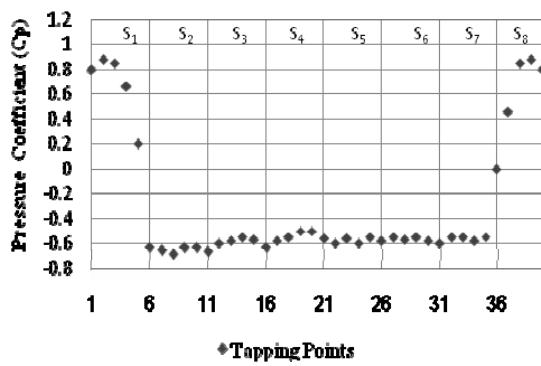
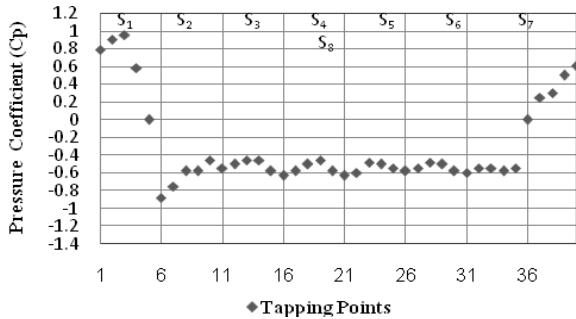


FIG. 8 DISTRIBUTION OF C_p AT ANGLE OF ATTACK OF 0°

It can be further noticed from this figure that nowhere there is stagnation point. It is due to the fact that the location at the stagnation point has not been selected for the taping. The pressure coefficient values are positive on the surfaces S_1 and S_8 , while on the surfaces S_2 to S_7 there are negative pressure coefficients. However, one interesting point can be seen from this figure that almost uniform pressure coefficient distributions are found on surfaces S_2 to S_7 . Baines, W. D. (1963) has stated that, velocities in the wake region are much smaller than the mean flow, and hence, almost uniform pressures exist on the body surfaces.

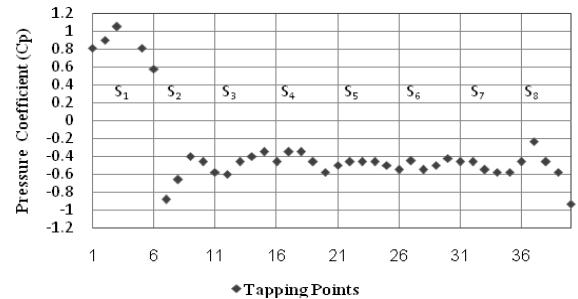
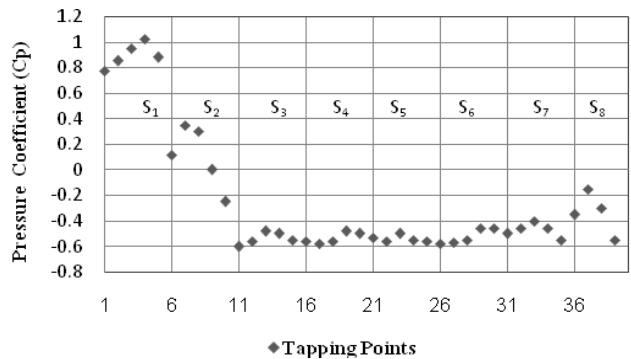
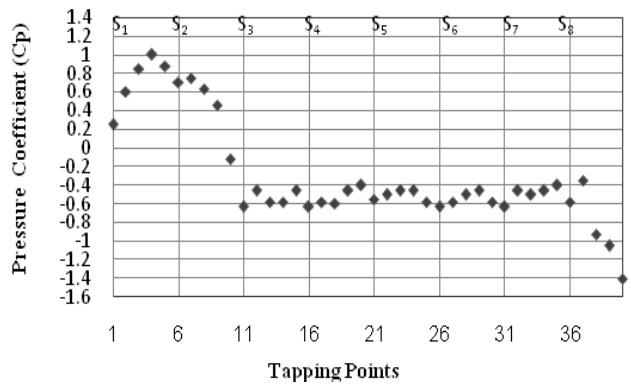
In Figure 9 at angle of attack of 10° , the value of the pressure coefficient has increased slightly on surface S_1 , while it has dropped slightly on surface S_8 . However, on the other six surfaces S_2 to S_7 , the distributions of pressure coefficient are almost uniform. At $\alpha = 10^\circ$, the

C_p -distribution is close to that at $\alpha = 0^\circ$. From Figure 10. At angle of attack of 20° , there is further rise of C_p values on surface S_1 and further drop of C_p values on surface S_8 . However, on surfaces S_3 to S_7 almost uniform C_p -distribution occurs. While on surface S_2 there is high suction near the tapping point 6. Probably the shear layer deviates much in the outward direction near this point. At $\alpha = 30^\circ$, an interesting point can be observed from Figure 11, where on surface S_1 , there is stagnation point on tapping point 3. The distributions of C_p on surfaces S_2 and S_8 are symmetric, which is expected at this angle of attack. On surfaces S_2 and S_8 near the tapping points 6 and 40 respectively, there are high suction, which indicates the high deviation of the shear layer in the outward direction from the body.

FIG. 9 DISTRIBUTION OF C_p AT ANGLE OF ATTACK OF 10° FIG. 10 DISTRIBUTION OF C_p AT ANGLE OF ATTACK OF 20°

In Figure 12 at angle of attack of 40° , While reattachment is seen to occur at the downstream side of the surfaces S_2 and S_8 , However, there is almost uniform C_p -distribution on the surfaces S_3 to S_7 . It is observed from Figure 8 that, there is still stagnation point on surface S_1 , but it occurs at tapping point 4. Due to further rotation the surface S_2 shows positive values of C_p . However, on the surfaces S_3 to S_7 , there is more or less uniform distribution of C_p . While on surface S_8 the C_p values become less negative. There appears reattachment near the tapping point 37 on the surface S_8 . Finally, from Figure 13 at $\alpha = 50^\circ$, it is seen that the stagnation point still occurs at tapping point 4

and there is further rise of positive C_p values on the surface S_2 and all values are positive on this surface. On the surfaces S_3 to S_7 , the C_p values are more or less uniform. While on the surface S_8 , there is very high suction. Further rotation of the cylinder has not been made because at $\alpha = 0^\circ$ and $\alpha = 60^\circ$, they are identical.

FIG. 11 DISTRIBUTION OF C_p AT ANGLE OF ATTACK OF 30° FIG. 12 DISTRIBUTION OF C_p AT ANGLE OF ATTACK OF 40° FIG. 13 DISTRIBUTION OF C_p AT ANGLE OF ATTACK OF 50°

Variation of Drag Coefficient

Variation of drag coefficient at various angles of attack on single octagonal cylinder is shown in Figure 14. The drag coefficient at different angles of attack on a single square cylinder at uniform flow obtained by Mandal, A. C. is also presented in this figure for comparison. It can be noticed from this figure that there is significant drop in the drag coefficient values for the octagonal cylinder in comparison to that of the square cylinder and the values approach to that of the circular cylinder.

It is seen from this figure that at zero angle of attack, the drag coefficient is about 0.99 and at all other angles of attack, the values are close to 0.90 except at angle of attack of 10°, where the value is about 0.60. The values of the drag coefficient at various angles of attack for the octagonal cylinder can be explained from the C_p -distribution curves.

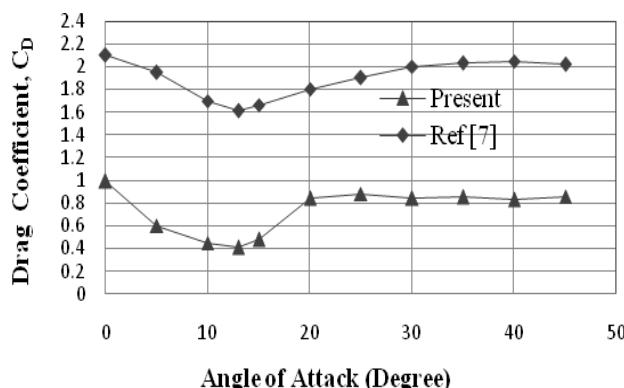


FIG. 14 VARIATION OF DRAG COEFFICIENT AT VARIOUS ANGLES OF ATTACK ON SINGLE CYLINDER

Variation of Lift Coefficient

In Figure 15 the variation of lift coefficient at various angles of attack on single octagonal cylinder is shown. The lift coefficient at different angles of attack on a square cylinder at uniform flow obtained by Mandal, A. C. is also presented in this figure for comparison. It can be noticed from this figure that the variation of the lift coefficient on the single octagonal cylinder is not appreciable; they are close to zero value except at angles of attack of 10° and 50°, where some insignificant values are observed. For the single square cylinder the variation of lift coefficient with angle of attack is remarkable. The values of the lift coefficients for the single octagonal cylinder can be explained from the C_p -distribution curves.

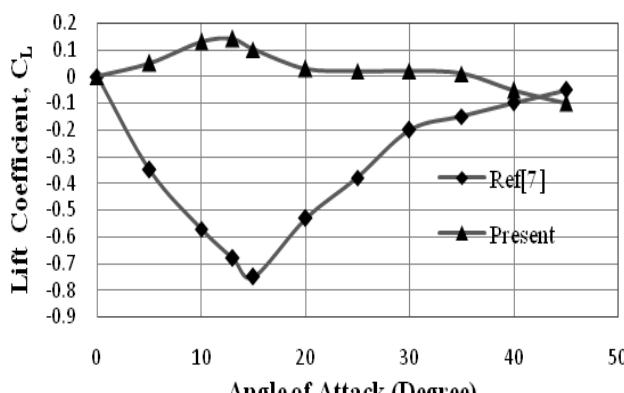


FIG. 15 VARIATION OF LIFT COEFFICIENT AT VARIOUS ANGLES OF ATTACK ON SINGLE CYLINDER

Conclusions

The following conclusions are drawn in regard to the wind effect on the single octagonal cylinder. There is significant drop in the drag coefficient values for the single octagonal cylinder in comparison to that of the single square cylinder and the values approaches to that of the circular cylinder. The drag coefficient for a single octagonal cylinder at zero angle of attack is about 0.95 in contrast to that of 2.0 for a single square cylinder at the same angle of attack. The variation of the lift coefficient on the single octagonal cylinder is not appreciable and they are close to zero value except at angles of attack of 10° and 50°, where some insignificant values are observed.

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